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A Survey Assessment of Soviet Electro-Optics Technology and Applications (Annexes A Through C)

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*Scientific and Technical
Intelligence Committee*

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December 1985

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Note to Readers

The Scientific and Technical Intelligence Committee is the DCI Committee whose mission in part is to advise and assist the DCI with respect to production of intelligence on foreign science and technology, to advise the National Foreign Intelligence Board, and to coordinate activity, information processing, and analyses in these areas. The Committee reports to the DCI through the DDCI and to NFIB through the Board's Secretariat.

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Preface

The Scientific and Technical Intelligence Committee's (STIC's) Electro-Optics Working Group (EOWG) convenes regularly to review developments and clarify differences within the US Intelligence Community relating to electro-optics (EO) technology, research, development, and applications. Electro-optics is an emerging technology, and new developments are occurring frequently. The potential for many of the applications is not yet well defined. This report assesses the present state of the art of EO technology within the Soviet Union, discusses some possible military applications, and estimates the impact this technology might have upon military systems. For this study, we have considered electromagnetic frequency spectrum sources from 0.01 to 1000 micrometer (μm) wavelength as falling in the category of electro-optics.

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Questions concerning the content of this report should be directed to the Chairman of the Electro-Optics Working Group, Mr. Denver Stone,

Mem-

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Members and alternate members of the EOWG who drafted this report are:

| | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| Mr. Denver Stone (<i>Chairman</i>) | Department of the Army/FSTC |
| Mr. J. M. Finley (<i>Cochairman</i>) | Department of the Air Force/FTD |
| Mr. Arthur G. Cobleigh, Jr. | Department of the Navy/NISC |
| Capt. Daniel Page | Department of the Air Force/FTD |
| Mr. Nicholas Kattos | Department of the Army/MIA |
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| Ms. Patricia Tarry | Department of the Navy/NISC |
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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

| | | | |
|--------------------------|--|--------------------------|---|
| <i>AC</i> | alternating current or voltage | <i>KGB</i> | Soviet Committee of State Security |
| <i>AOM</i> | acousto-optic modulator | <i>LCLV</i> | liquid crystal light valve |
| <i>BaTiO₃</i> | barium titanate | <i>LFM</i> | linear frequency modulation |
| <i>BMD</i> | ballistic missile defense | <i>LIDAR</i> | light radar, laser radar |
| <i>CdS</i> | cadmium sulfide, detector material | <i>LiNbO₃</i> | lithium niobate |
| <i>CCD</i> | charge coupled device | <i>LPE</i> | liquid phase epitaxy |
| <i>CRT</i> | cathode ray tube, picture tube | <i>LPI</i> | Leningrad Polytechnic Institute <i>imeni</i> M. I. Kalinin |
| <i>CO₂</i> | carbon dioxide | <i>MIFI</i> | Moscow Engineering-Physics Institute |
| <i>C³I</i> | command, control, communications, and intelligence | <i>MRΔT</i> | minimum resolvable temperature difference |
| <i>CW</i> | continuous wave, continuous operation | <i>NATO</i> | North Atlantic Treaty Organization |
| <i>COM</i> | coherent optical modulator | <i>Nd:YAG</i> | neodymium doped yttrium aluminum garnet, laser material |
| <i>D*</i> | D-star, value of specific detectivity of an optical detector, expressed in cm Hz ^{-1/2} per W | <i>nm</i> | nanometer, 10 ⁻⁹ m |
| <i>dB</i> | decibel | <i>OP</i> | optical processing or processor |
| <i>DC</i> | direct current or voltage | <i>PbS</i> | lead sulfide, detector material |
| <i>ED</i> | electronic-digital processing or computing | <i>PbSe</i> | lead selenide, detector material |
| <i>EIR</i> | extreme infrared | <i>PRN</i> | pseudorandom noise |
| <i>ELINT</i> | electronic intelligence | <i>PRIZ</i> | acronym from Russian for image transformer |
| <i>EMP</i> | electromagnetic pulse | <i>PROM</i> | Pockels (effect) read-out optical modulator |
| <i>E-O</i> | electro-optics | <i>rad</i> | radian, angular measure, approximately 57.3 degrees |
| <i>EOWG</i> | Electro-Optics Working Group of STIC | <i>rad</i> | measure of radiation dose absorbed |
| <i>EUV</i> | extreme ultraviolet | <i>RF</i> | radiofrequency |
| <i>EW</i> | electronic warfare | <i>SACLOS</i> | semiautomatic command to line of sight, missile guidance scheme |
| <i>FIAN</i> | Physics Institute <i>imeni</i> P. N. Lebedev, Moscow | <i>SAL</i> | semiautomatic laser |
| <i>FLIR</i> | forward-looking infrared (applied to many infrared viewers) | <i>SAR</i> | synthetic aperture radar |
| <i>FOCL</i> | fiber-optic communications line | <i>SAW</i> | surface acoustic wave, device, or effect |
| <i>FTI</i> | Physico-Technical Institute <i>imeni</i> A. F. Ioffe, Leningrad | <i>Si</i> | silicon |
| <i>GaAs</i> | gallium arsenide, semiconductor material | <i>SLM</i> | spatial light modulator |
| <i>GaAlAs</i> | gallium aluminum arsenide | <i>SPIE</i> | Society of Photoptical Instrumentation Engineers |
| <i>Ge:As</i> | gold doped germanium | <i>STIC</i> | Scientific and Technical Intelligence Committee of the Director of Central Intelligence |
| <i>GHz</i> | gigahertz, 10 ⁹ Hz | <i>TB</i> | time-bandwidth product |
| <i>HgCdTe</i> | mercury cadmium telluride, detector material | <i>TGS</i> | triglycerine sulfide, detector material |
| <i>Hz</i> | hertz, cycles per second | <i>TV</i> | television |
| <i>IFOV</i> | instantaneous field of view | <i>μm</i> | micrometer, 10 ⁻⁶ m |
| <i>InSb</i> | indium antimonide, detector material | <i>UV</i> | ultraviolet |
| <i>IR</i> | infrared | | |
| <i>IRE</i> | Institute of Radio Engineering and Electronics, Moscow | | |

Annex A

Technical Considerations

Introduction

The Soviet effort devoted to the development of electro-optics (EO) technology is probably much greater than that of the United States. The exact magnitude of the Soviets' effort—measured in rubles, number of technical personnel, and facility floorspace is not known. Reports of their EO activities, organizational changes, political and military support, and scientific achievements, however, suggest that they are using EO technology in some specific areas to compensate for deficiencies in their electronic digital technology. ☐

During the early 1970s the Politburo established a policy ordering that "optoelectronic technology be developed for real-time applications in military systems." Subsequently, four commissions were formed to plan, direct, and manage EO developments to meet this policy. The chairmen of these commissions are highly competent scientists and managers. Some have achieved international recognition for their accomplishments. Dr. L. D. Bakhrakh, for example, has earned two Lenin prizes for work in EO related to synthetic aperture radar developments. ☐

The Soviets have placed a high priority in recent years on the development and deployment of large conventional forces—sea, land, and air. "Smart" weapons, offering high reliability and accuracy, are playing a strong role in strengthening these forces. Senior Soviet military officials have often stated their concepts and expectations for such weapon systems. They believe that the use of the emerging high technology, with high accuracy and reliability, is essential for operational success. The Soviets have performed an analysis of US operations in Southeast Asia and have published the "lessons learned" for the benefit of their weapon systems designers, strategists, and tacticians. Their analysis suggests that operational missions (sorties) may be reduced by 2 to 3 orders of magnitude and resources expended reduced by 1 to 2 orders of

magnitude for each target destroyed if "smart" weapons are used instead of conventional weapons and techniques. They believe these statistics developed over the past two decades emphasize the need for development of "electro-optics technology for real-time application to weapon systems." ☐

Technologies

Optical Processing

Advanced radar designs, sonar, reconnaissance systems, missile guidance, electronic warfare, and advanced communications systems require increased processing capacity to keep abreast of the computation load produced by the larger bandwidth and longer time-bandwidth products of new sophisticated waveforms, pulse code formats, as well as the richer target and denser signal environments anticipated during the next decade. Optical processors are attractive for these applications because they have large bandwidths and larger time-bandwidth products and other characteristics—such as substantial (often several orders of magnitude) reductions in size, weight, power, and cost, as well as increases in overall system reliability. Optical processors are attractive for many applications because of their high data capacity, high throughput rates, and their ability to perform real-time parallel processing. Optical processing systems may be separated into two classes: image processors and signal processors. Image processors usually provide two-dimensional specific data on the image or a decision on the input image. The identification and location of a specific object in the image may be determined. Signal processors, on the other hand, process one-dimensional data, and their outputs are usually one-dimensional quantities—such as range, velocity, acceleration, and angle to the target. In addition, signal processors, such as those used for synthetic aperture radar, can also be designed to synthesize an image at the output. A generic model of an optical processor is shown in figure A-1 ☐

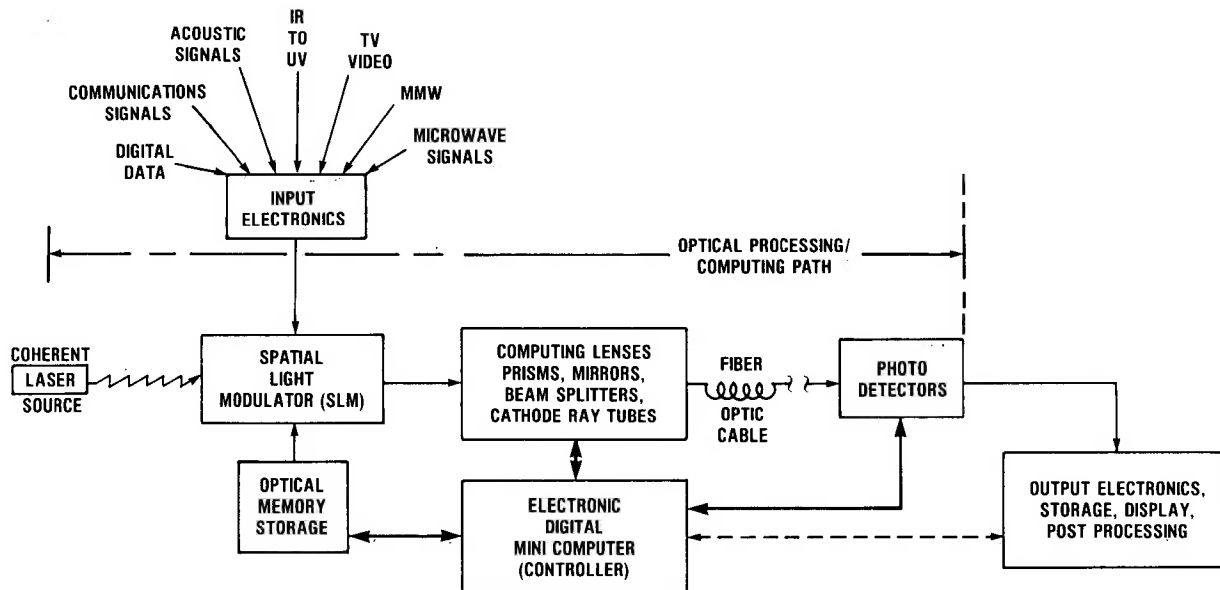


Figure A-1. Electro-Optic Processing/Computing Path (Generic Model)

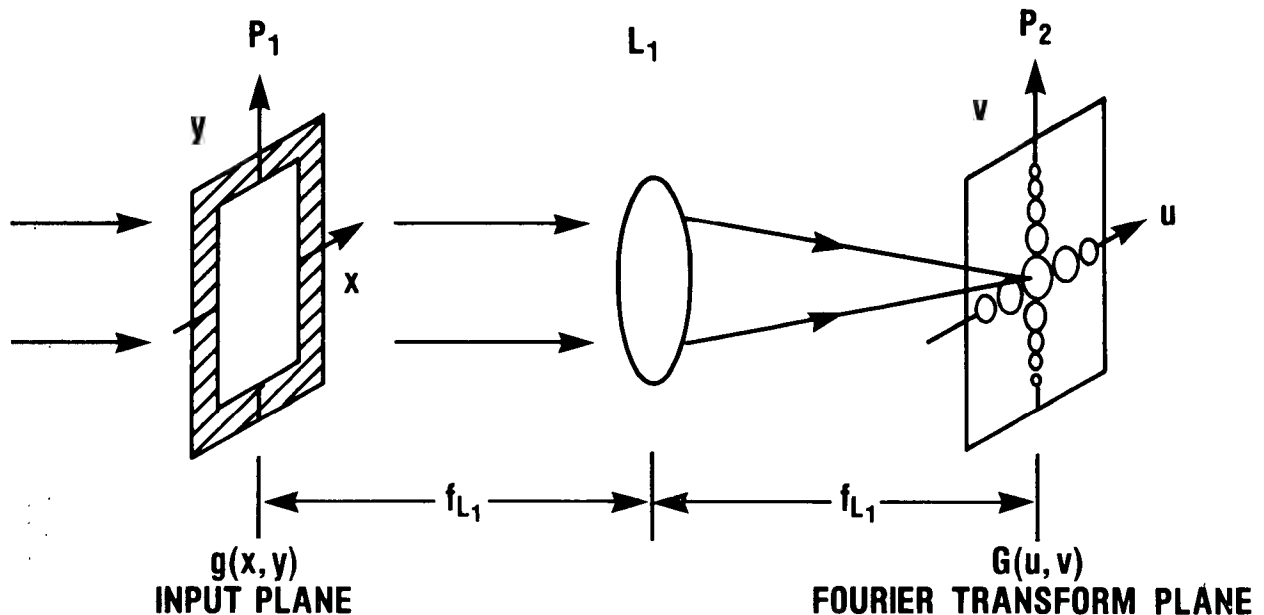
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Some of the common input signals for optical processors are raw, unprocessed electromagnetic phenomena in various formats and modes. Processing algorithms and mathematical manipulations must be applied to the data to extract useful (processed) information suitable for decisionmaking or further postprocessing, data fusion, or additional manipulation. The conventional (nonoptical) means for accomplishing this function uses electronic digital or analog technology. As suggested by figure A-1, a mathematical transformation from the input temporal domain to the spatial domain occurs at the input device, the spatial light modulator (SLM). In essence, the input signal is transferred to a light source, SLM, lens, mirrors, prisms, electronic controllers, fiber-optic light guides (cables), and photodetectors. The photodetectors permit the reverse transformation back to the temporal domain for final display, storage, or decisionmaking.

The illustration in figure A-2 provides a simplified description of the capability of a spherical lens to perform a complex, two-dimensional mathematical integration (Fourier transformation) of a function, $g(x,y)$, illustrated in the front focal plane (input plane). The spatial Fourier transform, $G(u,v)$, is displayed in the back focal plane (output plane). Variations of this mathematical computation could include cylindrical or conical lens cuts dimensioned for specific computational needs. Thus the primary motivational factors for an optical processor—parallel operation, high data capacity, very high throughput rates—are illustrated. The high frequency of a visible-light laser (nominally 600,000 GHz), as compared with a modern, sophisticated airborne intercept radar (nominally 10 GHz)

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OUTPUT AT FOURIER TRANSFORM PLANE:

$$G(u, v) = \iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g(x, y) \exp \left[-2\pi i \left(\frac{x u}{\lambda f_L} + \frac{y v}{\lambda f_L} \right) \right] dx dy$$

Figure A-2. Optical Spatial Fourier Transform Calculations

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provides an approximate 60,000:1 first order of magnitude figure of merit for comparing the inherent potential of electro-optics technology to wholly electronic technology.

Phase-Conjugate Optics

Phase-conjugate optics includes the phenomena of nonlinear optical effects associated with the precise reversal of both the direction of propagation and the phase factor for each plane wave in a beam of light. For example, a conventional plane mirror (figure A-3a) changes the sign of the k -vector component normal to the mirror surface while leaving the tangential component unchanged. An incoming light ray can be redirected arbitrarily by suitably tilting the mirror.

On the other hand, the phase conjugator (figure A-3b) causes an inversion of the vector quantity, k , so that the incident ray exactly returns upon itself, independent of the orientation of the conjugator. A simple extension of figure A-3 indicates that an incident diverging beam would be conjugated to become a converging beam, and an incident converging beam would be conjugated to become a diverging beam.

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In figure A-4a, a light ray is redirected by a phase-conjugate reflector. In figure A-4b, a wedge has been placed into the beam slightly redirecting the beam on

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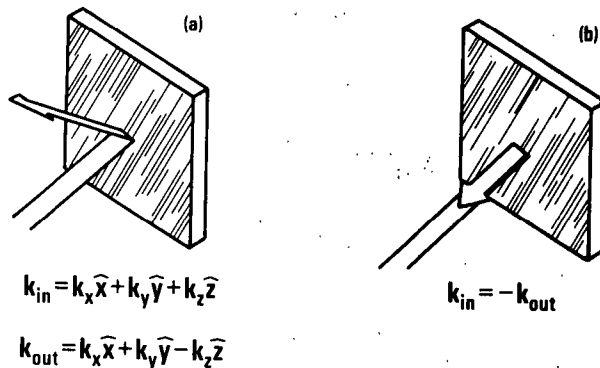


Figure A-3. Phase-Conjugate Optics

a. Mirror Reflector

b. Phase Conjugate Reflector

its way to the conjugator. Note that the conjugate beam returns to the same spot on the wedge and the return beam is subsequently deflected by the wedge to continue retracing the path of the incoming beam. The properties of the conjugate beam are not impaired by the interposition of a distorting medium (the wedge) as long as all the distorted light strikes the conjugator. The argument clearly extends to an array of randomly oriented wedges and thus to any phase distorter. This remarkable property indicates that, through optical-phase conjugation, a high-quality optical beam can be double passed through a poor-quality optical system with no loss in beam quality.

In addition to the aberration-correcting properties, phase conjugators can be used for pointing and tracking. To visualize pointing applications, consider what would happen if one were looking into a phase-conjugating mirror. An observer would see his or her face in a conventional mirror but not in a phase conjugator. This is because any light emanating from a particular point on the face would be returned by the conjugator to the same point, thereby not entering the viewer's eye. The only light seen by the observer would be that which had struck the conjugator after emanation as a diffuse reflection of room light scattered from the cornea covering the pupil of either eye. If the observer increased the illumination of one eye

(perhaps by using a flashlight), the entire conjugator would appear, to that eye only, to become relatively brighter. Obviously, the viewer's observations would be unaltered if an aberrating medium were placed between the viewer and the conjugator. Thus we have the essential feature of the pointing application. As figure A-5 shows, a small glint from a diffusely illuminated target can propagate through an inhomogeneous intervening medium (such as a turbulent atmosphere). The light that enters the optical aperture of the device can be amplified in a possibly distorting laser amplifier. If the amplified beam were then to impinge upon a conjugator, a "reflected" or conjugate beam would be generated to pass in the reverse direction through the amplifier and then through the intervening distorting medium, and finally, to strike the target. This use of phase conjugation is an alternative to the conventional adaptive optics techniques for aiming a powerful laser at a small target. A small auxiliary laser illuminates a broad area, and some of the scattered light is gathered in the optical system and amplified in the gain medium. The phase conjugator then returns the beam through the gain medium and onto the target. This scheme can greatly reduce the required aiming precision and can compensate for any static phase distortions to the amplifier system, optical system, or intervening atmosphere. Similar problems are encountered in laser-fusion research and in other applications.

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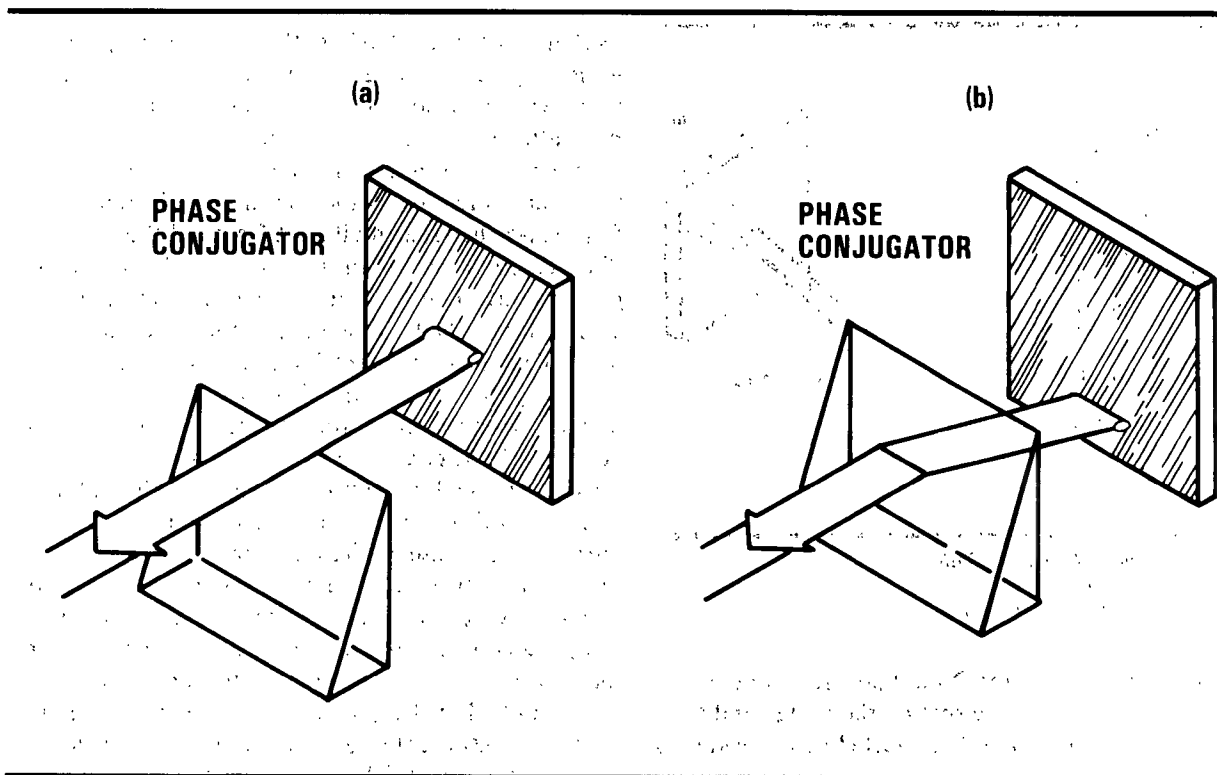
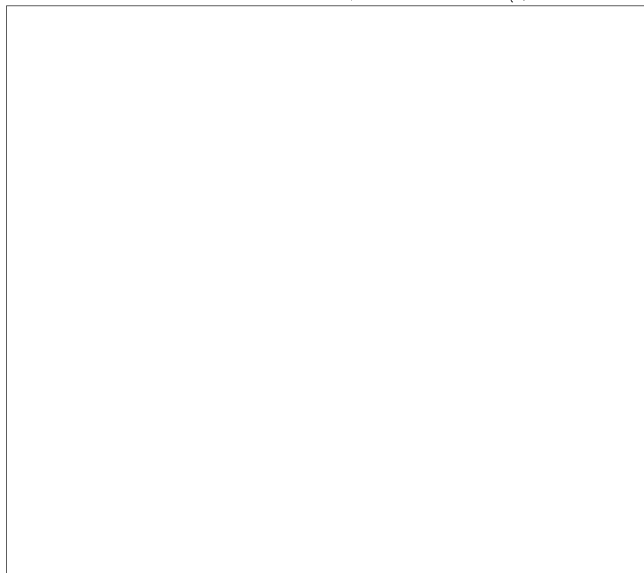
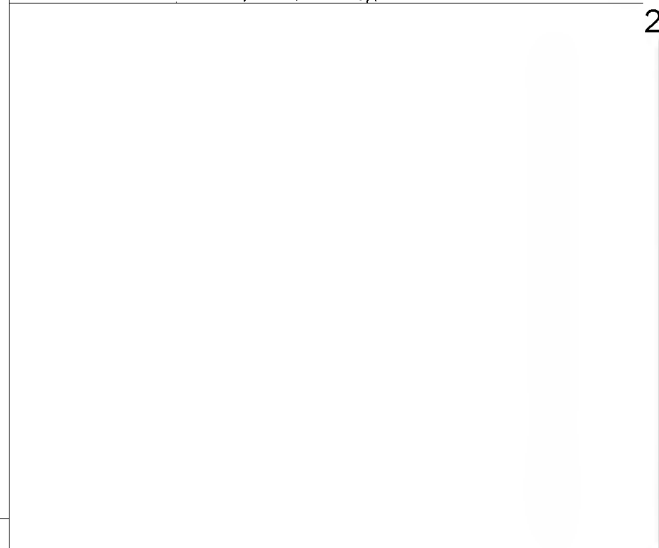


Figure A-4. Conjugate Beam Propagation Through an Inhomogeneous Medium



Photodetectors



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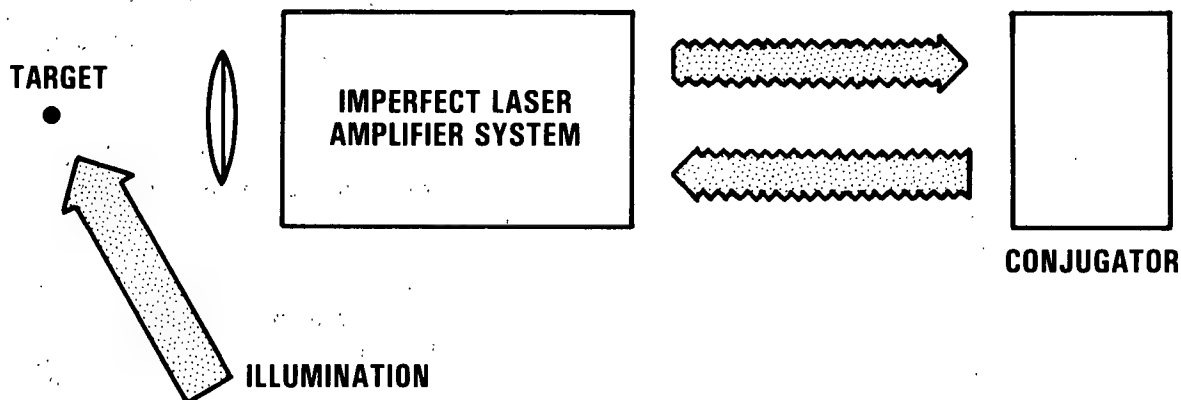


Figure A-5. Pointing and Tracking Application of Phase-Conjugate Optics

Currently, the most common semiconductor UV detectors are surface-barrier metal-semiconductor structures made by the vacuum or chemical vapor deposition of extremely thin metal films on the surface of such semiconductors as Si, GaAs, GaP, or ZnS. In 1981 the Soviets improved the traditional formula by covering gallium selenide (GaSe) with a thin layer of indium and tin oxide (ITO) instead of a simple metal. ITO is transparent to visible and UV light, yet it conducts electricity and acts as a metal. This is an improvement over the standard materials used because the ITO is "brighter" than the metals and the GaSe itself possesses some superior material characteristics. The net result is a greater quantum efficiency in the near UV. The quantum efficiency is reported to be as high as 0.9 electrons/photon at 365 nm wavelength.

In 1983 some other research was published on UV photodetectors using iron (Fe) doped indium phosphide (InP) on sapphire prepared through liquid-phase epitaxy (LPE). The material is described as being a "highly effective UV detector." Also, recent reports on LPE-prepared gallium aluminum arsenide (GaAlAs), indicate a quantum efficiency of 0.5 to 0.6 in the UV range.

Early Soviet work on actual devices was reported in a patent for a UV photoresistor based on cadmium thiogallate (CdGaS_4). The devices that use CdGaS_4 detectors are the DUF-1 dosimeter and the TSUF-1 ratemeter. Both devices seem to be intended for gross measurements.

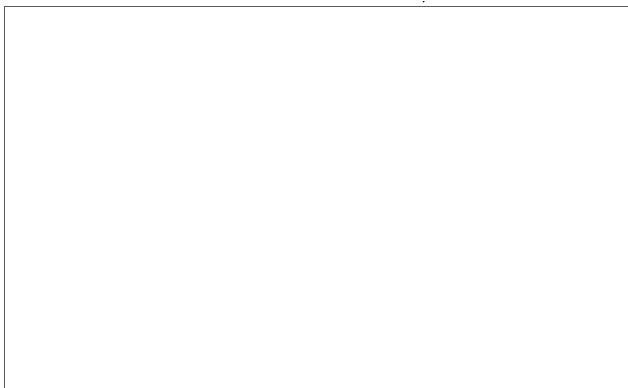
The Soviets have had new ideas and invented novel materials, but these efforts have not resulted in militarily significant devices. This may, however, change in the future. A recent Soviet article described the Soviets' development of microchannel plates for UV use. These plates could be used in very sensitive imaging devices.

Visible and Near Infrared. Based on analysis of Soviet work over the past decade in visible and IR detector materials and detection techniques, it is obvious that a large-scale research and development program has been under way. Extensive work has been done on detectors for the visible region to the near-IR region of the electromagnetic spectrum; this work has included photocathodes for television camera tubes and image intensifier tubes, as well as solid-state detector arrays.

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The most common photocathode material for Soviet vidicons is antimony trisulfide (Sb_2S_3), but others, lead oxide (PbO_2) in the LI442 and silicon (Si) in the LI446, have been reported. For photocathodes in devices such as orthicons, isocons, image dissectors, and image intensifiers, the Soviets use mainly S-10 and S-20 photoemissive materials on the focal plane. Thousands of image converter tubes employing S-1 photocathodes have been produced and, since World War II, have been used extensively in night sights for ground forces. These sights require active illumination from IR searchlights and are currently being phased out in favor of passive image intensifier sights. The research and development of second- and probably third-generation image intensifiers using fiber-optic faceplates, microchannel electron multipliers, and advanced photocathodes, such as gallium arsenide (GaAs) and gallium aluminum arsenide (GaAlAs), are currently under way. No second- or third-generation image intensifiers are known to have been produced for military applications. Descriptions of Soviet streak cameras contain information on some second-generation devices.



Currently, the Soviets are advertising for sale on the world market a silicon photodiode array, the KDM-512. This array consists of 512 photodiodes, 0.03 x 0.03 mm in size, arranged in a 16 x 32 matrix. In addition, a linear silicon photodiode array, the K1200TIL-2, has been reported. This device consists of 2,048 light-sensitive cells and two CCD shift registers, one on each side containing 1,032 elements. The pitch of the diodes is 12 μm and the height is 10 μm .

The most recent reports on Soviet CCD arrays reveal continued technological development and production capability. Linear arrays of 1,024-element photosensitive CCDs are serially produced and have the type number K1200TsL-1. These linear arrays have a pitch and height of 14 μm and are probably the ones used in the MSU-E multispectral scanner on board the Meteor-Priroda satellite. Two photosensitive CCD matrix arrays have been reported in type series, the K1200TsM-1 and the K1200TsM-2. The M-1 contains 288 (vertical) by 232 (horizontal) elements with upper (input) and lower (output) shift registers. The size of the light-sensitive cells is 24 x 24 μm . The M-2 contains 580 (vertical) by 360 (horizontal) elements with one upper (input) and two lower (output) shift registers. In addition, a CCD array, type KB1201TsP, has been reported to be used in the time-delay and integration mode, but no other information is available. In addition to the CCD imaging arrays mentioned above, the Soviets are producing a CCD array for the television camera that will be carried on the Venus/Halley's Comet probe. This array is reported to contain 512 x 576 elements of size 18 x 24 μm . The CCD array is designed to operate in the frame transfer mode where half of the array is used for storage or in a complete staring mode with image blanking during readout. As far as we know, all of the photosensitive CCD arrays described above are on silicon with overlapping polysilicon electrodes and a three-phase voltage clock for readout.

Mid Infrared.



The production of lead salt detectors by the Soviets is a mature technology. As early as 1971, a photoconductive 10-element PbSe array was used in an airborne infrared imaging system. A more recent report describes an IR imaging system flown on MI-2 Hoplite and MI-8 Hip helicopters and AN-2 Colt and

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Far Infrared. For far-IR detection the Poles and the Soviets have extensively researched HgCdTe photoconductors and photodiodes. Gold-doped germanium (Ge:Au) has been reported for airborne imaging systems as well. Pyroelectric detectors for laser detection and diagnosis have been produced using several materials such as triglycine sulfate (TGS), lithium niobate (LiNbO_3), barium titanate (BaTiO_3), and others. There is a continuing research and development program for hybrid IR/CCD detector arrays using HgCdTe/Si and LiNbO_3 /Si and monolithic CCD structures in infrared detector materials such as HgCdTe.

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The only known application of HgCdTe detectors in an operational infrared imaging system is in the far-IR channel of either the Vulkan or Teplo-4 airborne line scan system announced by the Soviets in 1979. The article describing the systems stated that, for detection in the 8- to 13- μ m bands, Ge:Au and HgCdTe are used. It seems likely that Ge:Au is used in one and HgCdTe in the other. It was also stated that the characteristics of both systems are similar, but only data were given for the Vulkan. The specifications that were given showed an IFOV of 8 arc minutes and an MR Δ T of 0.25 C. Incidentally, it was reported that InSb was used for detection in the 3- to 5- μ m band for both systems.

A great deal of research has been under way in the Soviet Union for several years on pyroelectric materials for IR detectors, and, recently, linear and matrix arrays of pyroelectric detectors have been reported. The linear arrays had 12 to 100 elements. The dimensions of the individual sensitive elements vary from 30 x 30 μ m to 0.5 x 0.5 μ m. The most common materials reported for Soviet linear pyroelectric detector arrays are TGS, LiNbO₃, and BaTiO₃. The matrix arrays reported so far are rather coarse devices with 25 elements (5 x 5) and 100 elements (10 x 10). The first matrix pyroelectric detectors were reported in 1975, and their stated purpose was for the investigation of the spatial-energy and time characteristics of lasers. The significance of pyroelectric detector development is the fact that these detectors operate at ambient temperature and have a flat wavelength response throughout the entire infrared region. The detectivity of pyroelectric detectors is normally 2 orders of magnitude less than BLIP semiconductor photodetectors, but, in applications where the signal-to-noise ratio is not a problem, their broad spectral response and uncooled operation make them desirable.

Several institutes in the Soviet Union have reported developments in monolithic CCD IR detector arrays. The work describes some of the methods of producing the oxide layer between the semiconductor detector materials, for example, InSb and HgCdTe for the MOS structures. References were made to applications as sensitive detectors of infrared radiation. The work at the Siberian Physico-Technical Institute *imeni* Kuznetsov of the Tomsk State University is closely paralleling the work at Texas Instruments, Incorporated, as evidenced by repeated reference at the Texas Instruments work. The MOS structures being developed at Tomsk use LPE grown Hg_{1-x}Cd_xTe with x-values ranging from 0.2 to 0.37, thus covering the mid- and far-IR bands. No information is currently available on array sizes or configurations.

Extreme Infrared. The region of the electromagnetic spectrum from 100 to 1000 μ m is referred to here as the extreme IR, but in Soviet writings it is usually

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called the submillimeter range. Some innovative work on imaging in this range has been reported, but no military applications are currently evident.

The Soviets have been working on superconducting bolometers based on double films of silver plus tin (Ag + Sn). The operation of the bolometer at liquid HeI and HeII temperatures was investigated. In HeI a decrease in sensitivity with frequency was observed, but in HeII the frequency characteristics of the bolometer remained uniform over the frequency range from 1.6 Hz to 30 MHz. For the latter, the sensitivity was reported as $D^* = 10^8 \text{ cmHz}^{1/2} \text{ W}^{-1}$ with a time constant of less than 5 ns. This work is significant because a group of Soviet authors have suggested improvements in their airborne thermal imaging systems by using high-speed bolometers because of their uniform wavelength response.

An article published in 1978 described the construction of a three-channel "far" infrared detector using semiconductor photoresistors. The device operated at a temperature of 4.2K and used boron doped silicon (Si:B) for the band from 15 to 30 μm , boron doped germanium (Ge:B) for the band from 30 to 140 μm , and n-type gallium arsenide (n-GaAs) for the band from 100 to 450 μm . The three photoresistors were mounted in an integrating chamber at 4.2K, and the preamplifiers were in a cryostat at 77K. The noise equivalent power (NEP) for the three peak wavelength responses was reported as $5 \times 10^{-12} \text{ W Hz}^{-1/2}$ ($\lambda = 27 \mu\text{m}$), $10^{-13} \text{ W Hz}^{-1/2}$ ($\lambda = 100 \mu\text{m}$), and $5 \times 10^{-14} \text{ W Hz}^{-1/2}$ ($\lambda = 285 \mu\text{m}$) with a time constant of 5 μs . The development of this three-channel detector is significant because it indicates the potential application as a broadband radiometer for operation in the extreme IR. The authors of the 1978 article stated that this detector was being used in a device for plasma diagnostics

Technical Impact of Electro-Optics on Military Operations

There is no comprehensive, concise assessment available of the total potential impact of EO technology on military weapon systems. Based on a few known applications, however, some facts are evident. The

force-multiplying impact of this technology has been studied over a period of years. The performance, size, weight, cost, and reliability of an EO signal processor for use in radars has been estimated and compared with those of an electronic digital signal processor. The following paragraphs will address these topics in more detail.

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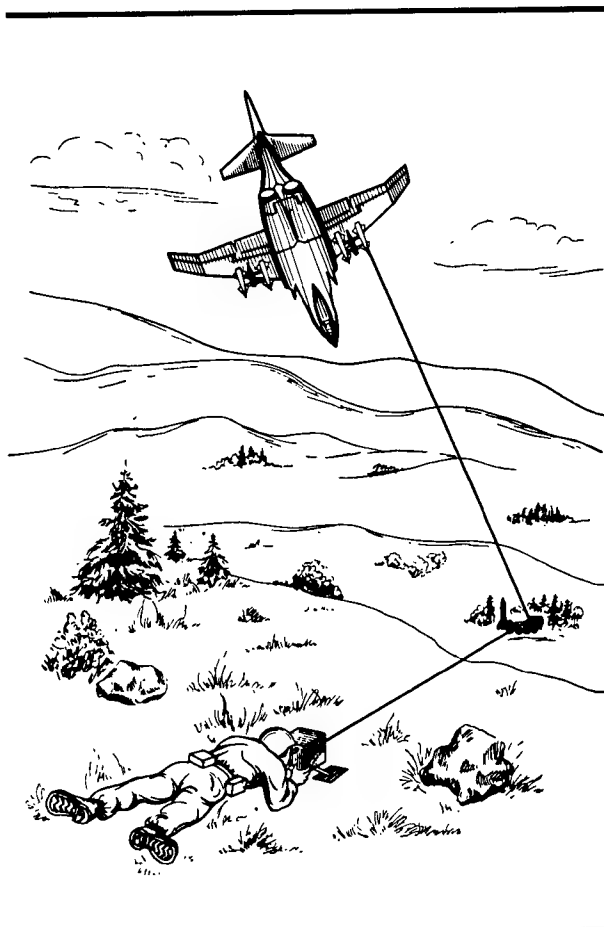


Figure A-6. Air-to-Ground Operations—
Electro-Optic Designator (Soviet Illustration)

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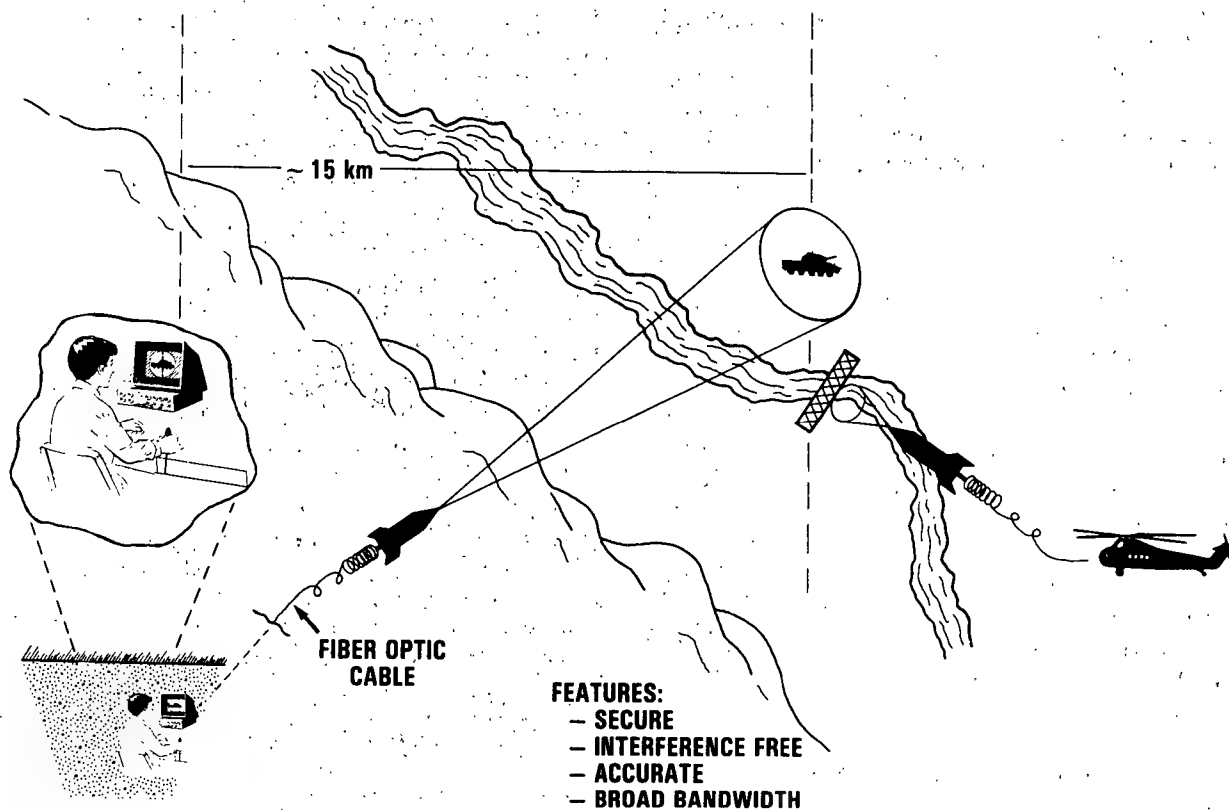


Figure A-7. Fiber-Optic Guided Antitank Missiles

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Radar Signal Processing

Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) has important military value for use in surveillance, command and control, and reconnaissance systems. High-resolution (3 meter), real-time SAR data have recently become an available resource to the combat commander. The employment of real-time SAR as a sensor and target designator provides the battle commander with a highly effective force-multiplying capability that was

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not previously available for air-ground combat operations. The Soviets have high-resolution SAR in the Foxbat D aircraft, but there is no evidence that they have developed a real-time SAR processing and display capability. Their electronic digital capability is probably not sufficient to support the high data throughput rates required of a real-time high-resolution SAR processor.

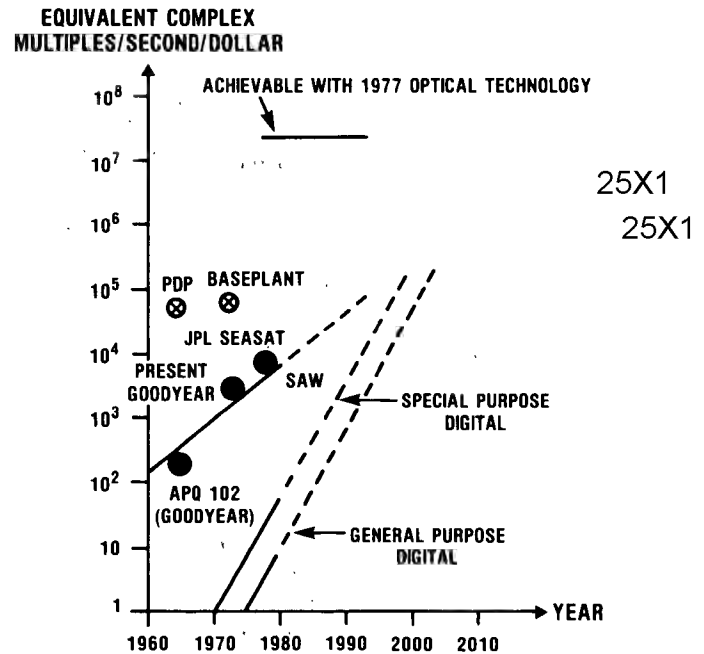


Figure A-8. Electro-Optic versus Digital Radar Signal Processing

Figure A-8 shows the performance impact for EO radar signal processors designed and deployed in specific US radars such as SEASAT. The figure clearly indicates that, for the six high-performance radars shown, the digital technology in the early 1970s was not adequate to support the radar processing requirement without undue cost. The ordinate in figure A-8, which is based upon empirical data, provides a figure of merit, "multiples/seconds/dollar," sufficient to compare SAW, EO, and digital technologies. By about 1990 digital technology will probably approach a "size barrier"—0.5 μm chip VHISC—limiting it to about 10^{10} operations per second. The cost incurred to exceed this performance will be excessive and will cause the digital curve to flatten out starting in the early 1990s. Figure A-9 shows two curves based on empirical data that illustrate the relative economic impact of EO versus electronic digital technology for various TB products. These data indicate that, for large TB values, EO radar signal processors are the most cost effective. One can easily visualize the technical performance and economic impacts of EO technology versus digital

for radar signal processing applications. Radar signal processing requirements are considered to be the most stringent to meet. Hence, other military applications of EO technology will show a similar trend indicating favorable results. EO technology is also necessary to accomplish some functions that cannot be performed by other known or envisioned methods

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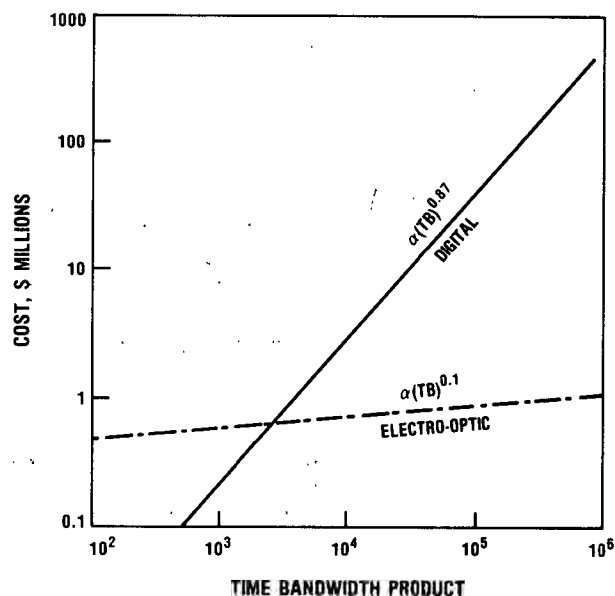


Figure A-9. Economic Impact of Electro-Optics versus Digital Radar Signal Processing

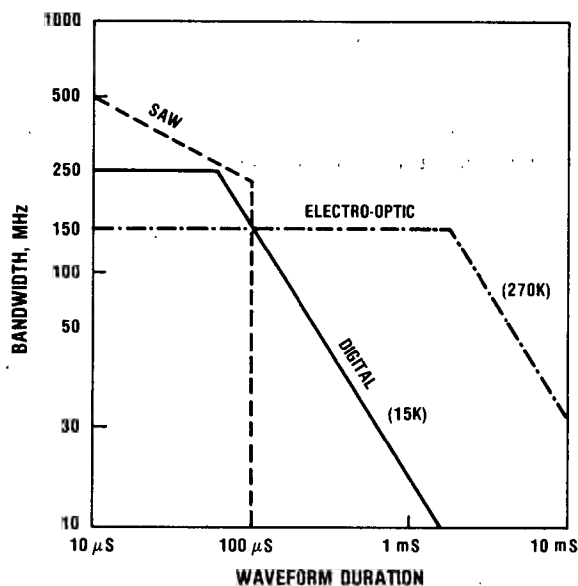


Figure A-10. Technology Map of Time-Bandwidth (TB) Data

Electro-Optics Size, Performance, Cost, and Reliability Impacts

The preceding paragraphs have suggested that EO technology offers substantial performance advantages in specific applications. Engineers estimate that, in addition, the space (volume) required for an EO system is less than one-tenth that required for a digital system to accomplish an equivalent function. In many applications one to three orders of magnitude improvements can reasonably be expected. Also, based upon preliminary data from US programs, the

development costs are believed to be about one-tenth that required for digital systems, and that reliability is enhanced one to two orders of magnitude. In addition, weight and overall operating power requirements are reduced substantially, and in many cases two to three orders of magnitude gain may be realized. The development of improved optical materials for SLM, photodetectors, and integrated EO systems is expected to further accentuate these favorable trends. It appears, therefore, that EO technology has all the important systems factors going in the right direction at the same time. The use of this technology in conjunction with microelectronics in future weapon systems will provide a corresponding payoff, with a related possible increase in reserve space for additional payload, fuel, propulsion, and command and control subsystems. A substantial gain in pointing and tracking technology may also be realizable using conjugate optics

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Fiber Optics Resistance to Nuclear Radiation and Electromagnetic Pulse

Although the Soviets have indicated their familiarity with nuclear radiation effects on fiber-optic cable transmissivity they have not published very much in the open literature that includes specific test results. In any event, the effects of nuclear radiation are highly dependent upon the fiber-optic cable material and dopants used. Figure A-11 provides a general representation of the transient effects to be anticipated. During a nuclear burst, one can expect a strong light pulse that rapidly attenuates to a minimum transmission level and then slowly recovers to near the initial level. The time constant can vary from a few milliseconds to as long as one hour. However, the material and dopants can be selected to give predictable responses suitable to specific application requirements. The inherent resistance of fiber-optic cables makes it easier to design systems that are nuclear hardened []

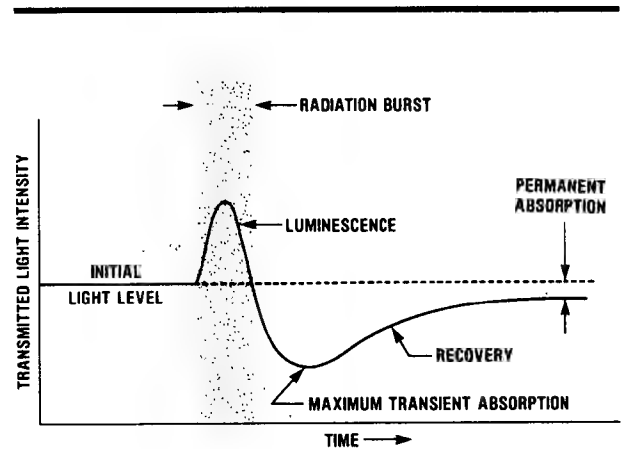


Figure A-11. Optical Fiber Cable Transmittivity Attenuation in a Nuclear Radiation Environment

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Annex B

Parameter Tables

Table B-1
Soviet Low-Energy Lasers

| Type of Instrument | Wavelength (μm) | Mode | Pulse Width (μ sec) | Repetition Rate (kHz) | Emissive Power | | Diameter of Beam (mm) | Divergence of Beam (minutes) | Lifetime (hr) | Size Dimensions (mm) |
|--------------------|----------------------------------|------------|---------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|---------------|----------------------|
| | | | | | Multiple Mode (mw) | Single Mode (mw) | | | | |
| a. Gas lasers | | | | | | | | | | |
| OKG-11 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 2 | 1 | 1.5 | 10 | 500 | 550x400x300 |
| OKG-12 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 10 | | 3x10 | 10x40 | 500 | 1160x120 |
| OKG-12-1 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 10 | | 4 | 10 | 500 | 1160x120 |
| OKG-13 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 0.4 | 0.2 | 1.3 | 7 | 500 | 262x46 |
| OKG-15 | 10.6 | Continuous | NA | NA | 10 | | 3 | 40 | 500 | 640x195x180 |
| OKG-16 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | NA | 0.1 | 1 | 7 | 500 | 180x46 |
| LG-36 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 40 | 20 | 4 | 5 | 750 | 153x290x300 |
| LG-36A | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 80 | 40 | 5 | 5 | 500 | 188x290x300 |
| LG-38 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | NA | 50 | 2.2 | 1.8 | 750 | 2000x320x290 |
| LG-55 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 2 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 500 | 360x70x60 |
| LG-56 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 2mw | | | 10 | 500 | 350x58x58 |
| LG-65 | 1.15 | Continuous | NA | NA | 20mw | | 6 | 15 | 300 | 1110x150x120 |
| LG-75 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 25mw | | 5 | 10 | 500 | 1080x109x112 |
| LG-75A | 3.39 | Continuous | NA | NA | 20mw | | 6 | 10 | 500 | 1080x109x112 |
| LG-126 | 0.6328; 1.15; 3.39 | Continuous | NA | NA | 10mw on each wave length | | | 10 | 750 | 1150x126x146 |
| LG-169 | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | 20mw | | 4 | 15 | 300 | 700x130x115 |
| LG-106 | 0.4880 | Continuous | NA | NA | 1w | | 3.5 | 4 | | 1075x290x280 |
| LG-109 | 0.4880 | Continuous | NA | NA | 1w | | 3.5 | 6 | | 670x320x130 |
| LG-187 | 10.6 | Continuous | NA | NA | 15w | | 6 | 30 | 300 | 1600x300x300 |
| LGI-17 | 1.118; 1.15; 1.206 | Pulse | 0.8 | 0.2-5 | 50w;40w; 10w | | 15 | 20 | | 150x170x1070 |
| LGI-26 | 2.026; 3.43; 3.51 | Pulse | 0.15-0.5 | 0.2-5 | 100w;50w;20w | | 15 | 10 | 300 | 150x170x1070 |
| LGI-37 | 0.526; 0.5353; 0.5397; 0.5955 | Pulse | 0.3-0.35 | 0.1-0.7 | 2kw total | | 5 | 6 | | 1500x400x345 |
| LG-149a | 0.6329914 | Continuous | NA | NA | NA | 0.5 | | 3 | | 820x350x170 |
| LG-159b | 0.6328 | Continuous | NA | NA | NA | 10 | 5 | 2 | | 1900x230x190 |

Footnotes appear at end of table.

Table B-1 (Continued)

| Type of Laser | Energy Pulse | Pulse Power | Pulse Width | Beam Divergence | Beam Diameter | Pulse Repetition Rate | Type of Q Switcher | Pumping Mode | Year | Operating Mode |
|---|--------------|--------------------------|--------------|-----------------|---------------|------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|-----------------------|
| b. Solid-state lasers | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruby | | | | | | | | | | |
| GOR-0.2 | 0.2J | —mW | 0.12 msec | 11 mrad | | 0.03 Hz | | | | Free lasing |
| GOR-100 | 100 | | 1 msec | 11 | | 0.005 | | | | Free lasing |
| GOR-300 | 300 | | 6 msec | 9 | | 0.005 (1 pulse/ 5 min) | | | 1968 | Free lasing |
| OGM-20 | 0.4 | 20 | | 0.5 | | 1 | E-O | | | Multimode |
| | | | (20 nsec) | (2) | | | | | | Giant pulse |
| OGM-40 | 0.6-0.8 | 40 | (15-20 nsec) | 0.3 | | 1/60 | Modulated | Q Mode | 1974 | Giant pulse |
| GOM-1 | 0.5 | 30-50 | (10-15 nsec) | | | 1/20 | O-M | | | Giant pulse |
| | | | (10-15 nsec) | | | | | | | Single mode |
| FIAN | 2.5 | 250 | 10 nsec | 2 | | 1/3 | E-O | | | |
| GD-312 | 400 mJ | | 20 nsec | | | 6.24 | | | 1964-65 | |
| NS-64 | 400 mJ | | | | | 6 | | | 1974 | |
| IT-84 | 600 mJ | | | | | 1 | | | 1969 | |
| | 1J | | 25 nsec | | | 1 | | | | |
| Neodymium: glass | | | | | | | | | | |
| GOS-301 | 300J | 0.380 mW | 0.8 msec | 6 mrad | —mm | 1/300 | | | | Free lasing |
| GOS-1000-1 | 1000 | 1 | 1 | 6 | | 1/480 | | | | Free lasing |
| Neodymium: aluminum yttrium garnet | | | | | | | | | | |
| LT-1 | | (1-3) x 10 ⁻⁶ | | 6 | 3.4 | | | | | Continuous multimode |
| LT1-3 | 0.02 | 3 | 10 | 6 | 12.5 | | | Pulsed | | |
| LT1-5 | 0.05 | 5 | 10 | 6 | 25,50,100 | | | Pulsed | | |
| Second harmonic (0.53 μm) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Type of laser | | | Lasing Mod | Pulse Power | | Pulse Repetition Rate | Pulse Width | Type of Doubler | | Conversion Efficiency |
| LTIPCh-3 | | | YAG | 0.5-1.0 mW | | 12.5;25;500; 100 Hz | 10 nsec | Lithium niobate | | |
| LTIPCh-1 | | | GLASS | 10 1000 | | 0.1 1/300 | 15 20 | | | 10% |

^a Single-frequency, highly stable laser; frequency instability after eight-hour operation no more than 5.10⁻⁸; frequency regeneration 4.10⁻⁸; the instrument provides for frequency retuning of ±250 MHz

^b Single-frequency, stable gas laser with increased emissive power; frequency instability after eight-hour operation no more than 1.10⁻⁸

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Table B-2
Soviet CO₂ Closed-Cycle Electric Discharge Lasers

| | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|--|--|--------------------------------------|
| a. CW Mode | | | | | | |
| Designator | LT-2 | TL-10 | ISET | 23E | (unknown) | TL-5 |
| Average power (kw) | 18 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 7.5 | 7 |
| Efficiency | | | | | | |
| System (%) | 9 | 8 | 5 | 7 | | |
| Electro-optic (%) | | 15 | | 15 | 12.5 | 7 |
| Gas | | | | | | |
| Constituents | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | CO ₂ :N ₂ :air | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He: Xe:CO | CO ₂ :(N ₂ :air) | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | CO ₂ :air |
| Ratio | 1:12:12 | 1:9:10 | 1:31:15:0.8:1 | 1:19 | 3:45:51 | |
| Pressure (torr) | 450 | 25 | 50 | 25 | 50 | 30 |
| Renewal (%) | | 0.4 | Catalytic regenerator | 0.5 | 0.5 to 1.0 | 0.5 to 1.0 |
| Flow velocity (m/sec) | 90 | 90 | 90 | 80 | 117 | 120 |
| Compressor/fan | | Two AI-24 aviation compressors | Centrifugal fan | Two axial-flow compressors | Two 3-stage axials | Two AI-24 aviation compressors |
| Discharge | | | | | | |
| Volume (l) | 3.3 | | 20 | | 13.2 | |
| Width (cm) | 5 | 35 | 20 | 40 | 27 | |
| Height (cm) | 5 to 6 trapezoidal | 6 | 10 | 6 | 5.3 to 5.7 trapezoidal | 3.8 |
| Length (cm) | 120 | | 100 | | 89 | 130 |
| Specific input (J/g) | 250 | 240 | 300 | | | 150 |
| Type | 125 kv E-beam 40 μ A/cm ² | DC glow preionization | 120 kv E-beam 70 μ A/cm ² | Self-sustained | Electric discharge preionized | |
| Optics | Unstable, M=1.18 | 4-pass unstable confocal | plane telescopic, M=1.3 | 4-pass unstable confocal | 3-pass unstable telescopic, M=1.63 | Unstable, M=1.15 |
| Window | KCl annular beam 5 x 3.6 cm | KCl rectangular beam 2.5 x 4.5 cm | NaCl | KCl annular beam 5.5 cm OD | NaCl | KCl annular beam 8 cm OD |
| Dimensions (m) | | 2.7x3x2.8 | | 2.7x3.0x2.8 | | 2.5x1.95x1.6 |
| Facility | FIAEh | FIAEh NITsTLAN | FIAN SSSR | NITsTLAN | KAI IFAN BSSR | FIAEh NITsTLAN |

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Table B-2
Soviet CO₂ Closed-Cycle Electric Discharge Lasers (Continued)

| Designator | TsIKLON | LT-1 | IGLAN | MKTL-2 | LANTAN | MKTL-1 | LGN-702 (Kardamon) |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Average power (kW) | 6 | 5 | 3 | 2.5 | 2 | 1.2 | 1 |
| Efficiency | | | | | | | |
| System (%) | | | | 10 | | 9 | |
| Electric-optic (%) | 10 | | | | | 13 | |
| Gas constituents | CO ₂ :N ₂ | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | | CO ₂ :N ₂ | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | C ₂ :N ₂ :He |
| Ratio (torr) | 1:7 | 1:20:30 | 1:1:8 | | 1:7 | 1:1:6 | 0.7:2:7 |
| Pressure | 35 | 50 | 30 | | 40 | 30 | 8 |
| Renewal (%) | | 0.3 | | | | | |
| Flow velocity (m/sec) | 220 | | | | 70 | 4 | |
| Compressor/fan | AI-20 aviation | Two 2DNV- 1500 pumps | VN-2 pump | | Axial blower | | |
| Discharge | 27 | 7.2 | 11 | | 8.3 | 1.825 | |
| Volume (l) | 65 | 20 | Two sets | 127 tubes | 16 | 64 tubes | |
| Width (cm) | | | 39 tubes | | | 0.55 cm ID | |
| Height (cm) | 5.5 | 4 | 1 cm ID | | 5.5 | | |
| Length (cm) | 76 | 90 | 180 tube | | 94 | 120 | |
| Type | 60 kHz DC capacitive discharge | Self-sustained | DC discharge | 10kHz AC capacitive | 10-50kHz electric discharge preionization | 10 kHz AC capacitive | |
| Optics | 12-pass plane/ concave | 3-pass unstable | Plane | Plane | 3-pass | Plane | |
| Window | | KCl annular beam 5cm OD | KCl | | ZnSe | ZnSe | |
| Dimensions (m) | | 4.2x2.1x2.95 | 4.6x1.3x1.9 | 1.8x1.3x1.9 | 2.5x1.0x1.65 | 2x0.7x1.2 | 6.5x0.72x 1.26 |
| Facility | IPMAN | FIAEh NITsTLAN | IPMAN | FIAEh NITsTLAN | IPMAN | FIAEh | IFAN BSSR |

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Table B-2 (Continued)

b. Pulsed Mode

| Designator | KOKhTA DYaTEL-2 | (unknown) | SVERTChOK | LPD-1 | LGIT-1 | LANTAN |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|---|
| Average power (kW) | 10 | 5 | 1.5 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| PRF (Hz) | 750 | 100 | 600 | 500 | 300 | 200 |
| Average pulse energy (J) | 14 | 50 | 2.5 | 2 | 3.5 | 5 |
| Pulse length (μs) | | | 4 | 300 | 15 | 10 |
| Efficiency | | | | | | |
| System (%) | 5 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | |
| Electric-optic (%) | 10 | 15 | | | 10 | 10 |
| Gas | | | | | | |
| Constituents | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He | CO ₂ :N ₂ :He |
| Ratio | 1:1:5 | 1:6:3 | 2:1:5 | 10:45:45 | 1:5:5 | 1:3.3:10 |
| Pressure (atm) | 0.75 | 1 | 0.6 | 0.16 | 0.22 | 0.1 |
| Renewal (%) | 0.1 m ³ /hr | 1.5 | Catalytic converter | Catalytic converter | | |
| Flow velocity (m/sec) | 100 | 11 | 60 | | | 70 |
| Compressor/fan | Three axial fans | | Axial | Two 2DVN-1500 pumps | | Axial blower |
| Discharge | | | | | | |
| Volume (l) | 0.8 | 2 | 0.28 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 8.3 |
| Width (cm) | 4 | 6.5 | 2.8 | 4 | | 16 |
| Height (cm) | 2.5 | 4.5 | 2 | 4 | | 5.5 |
| Length (cm) | 40 | 70 | 50 | 50 | | 94 |
| Type | UV preionized | 150 keV E-beam 60 mA/cm ² | UV arc preionized | UV preionized and plasma cathode | Electric discharge preionized | 10 to 50 kHz electric discharge pre ionized |
| Optics | Unstable | 3-pass unstable m=1.8 | | Plane | Stable | 3-pass |
| Window | ZnSe | | | KCl | | ZnSe |
| Dimensions (m) | 2.5x1.5x1.75 | | 1.0x1.6x2.0 | | 2.16x1.58x0.82 | 2.5x1.0x1.65 |
| Facility | FIAEh | VNIIEhFA | FIAEh | FIAEh | NIKIMT | IPMAN |

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Table B-3
Soviet EO Light Modulators

| | Soviet Device Designation | Functional Description | Material | Special Region, μm | | Soviet Device Designation | Functional Description | Material | Special Region, μm |
|--|---------------------------|--|--------------------|-------------------------------|--|---------------------------|--|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Electro-optical shutters and high-frequency modulators | OMG-48 | Shutter for small solid-state lasers | LiNbO ₃ | 1.06 | Acousto-optical shutters, modulators, deflectors | OMG-46 | Shutter for solid-state frequency laser | Fused silica | 1.06 |
| | OMG-9 | Shutter for protecting photomultiplier tube (PMT) against background | DKDP | 0.4 to 1.5 | | OMG-29 | Modulator for radiation frequency conversion in heterodyne systems | STF3 glass | 0.63 |
| | OMG-41 (PD-94) | Amplitude modulator for optical range-finders | DKDP | 0.63 0.53 | | OMG-17 | Modulator for radiation frequency conversion in heterodyne systems | Germanium | 10.6 |
| | OMG-35 | Amplitude modulator for optical range-finders | ZnSe | 0.63 | | OMG-21 | Amplitude modulator | Germanium | 10.6 |
| | OMG-22 (PD-29) | Phase modulator for heterodyne systems | LiNbO ₃ | 1.06 | | OMG-44 | Deflector | Lead molybdate | 0.63 |
| | OMG-3 | Amplitude modulator for optical information transmission lines | GaAs | 10.6 | | OMG-45 | Deflector | Paratellurite | 0.63 |
| | OMG-30 | Phase modulator for heterodyne systems | CdTe | 10.6 1.06 | | OMG-12 | Amplitude modulator for scientific research to search purposes | PMN | 0.4 to 0.7 |
| | OMG-14 | Amplitude modulator for optical information transmission lines | ZnSe | 0.63 | Electro to optical low to frequency and spatial modulators | OMG-2 (PD-41) | Amplitude modulator for information display systems | PMN (transverse effect) | 0.4 to 0.7 |
| | OMG-28 (PD-47-48) | Amplitude modulator for optical information transmission lines | ZnSe | 0.63 | | OMG-38 | Wide to aperture amplitude modulator for information display systems | PMN (longitudinal effect) | 0.4 to 0.7 |
| | OMG-34 | Amplitude modulator for optical profilometers | LiNbO ₃ | 0.63 1.06 | | OMG-40 | Matrix spatial modulator for information processing systems | PMN | 0.4 to 0.7 |
| Electro-optical microwave frequency modulators | OMG-42 (CD-339) | Amplitude modulator for optical rangefinders | LiNbO ₃ | 0.63 1.06 | | OMG-39 | Spatial modulator for light to controlled information processing systems | Bismuth silicate | Write 0.3 to 0.68, read 0.63 to 5.0 |
| | MG-31 | Amplitude modulator for optical rangefinders | CdTe | 10.6 1.06 | | | | | |

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Table B-4
Parameters of Photodetectors

| Detector Material | Operating Mode | Temperature (K) | Spectral Range (μm) | Peak Wave-length (μm) | Detectivity ($\text{cm Hz}^{1/2} \text{ W}^{-1}$) | Time Constant (μs) |
|-------------------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|
| Si | PC | 295 | 0.4-1.1 | 0.8-0.9 | $(0.5-1) \times 10^{12}$ | 5 |
| Si | PV | 295 | 0.4-1.1 | 0.8-0.9 | $(2-10) \times 10^{12}$ | 0.5 |
| PbS | PC | 295 | 1-3 | 2.5 | $(0.8-1.5) \times 10^{11}$ | 300 |
| PbS | PC | 195 | 1-3.5 | 2.7 | $(4-7) \times 10^{11}$ | 5,000 |
| PbS | PC | 77 | 1-4 | 3.1 | 2×10^{11} | 3,000 |
| Ge | PV | 295 | 0.4-1.5 | 1.5 | 5×10^{11} | 0.1 |
| PbSe | PC | 295 | 1-4.5 | 3.4 | 2×10^{11} | 2 |
| PbSe | PC | 195 | 1-5.1 | 4.1 | $(2-5) \times 10^{10}$ | 30 |
| PbSe | PC | 77 | 1-6.5 | 4.8 | $(3-5) \times 10^{10}$ | 40 |
| InSb | PC | 77 | 1-5.4 | 5.3 | $(0.8-1) \times 10^{11}$ | 5 |
| InSb | PV | 77 | 1-5.3 | 5.1 | $(1-11.2) \times 10^{11}$ | 1 |
| InAs | PV | 77 | 1-3.5 | 3.1 | $(4-7) \times 10^{11}$ | 0.5 |
| Ge: Au | PC | 60 | 2-9 | 5 | $(1-2) \times 10^{10}$ | 0.1 |
| Ge: Hg | PC | 27 | 2-14 | 10.5 | $(2-5) \times 10^{10}$ | 0.2 |
| Ge: Cd | PC | 4.2 | 2-23 | 16 | $(2-4) \times 10^{10}$ | 0.1 |
| Ge: Zn | PC | 4.2 | 2-38 | 36 | $(2.5-5) \times 10^{10}$ | 0.02 |
| Ge: B | PC | 4.2 | 30-140 | 100 | 3×10^{12} | 20 |
| HgCdTe | PC | 77 | 3-6 | 5 | $(1-5) \times 10^{10}$ | 0.01 |
| HgCdTe | PV | 77 | 8-13 | 10.6 | $(0.5-2) \times 10^{10}$ | 0.01 |
| PbSnTe | PV | 77 | 8-13 | 10.6 | 2×10^{10} | 0.05 |
| Si: In | PC | 4.2 | 2-7.5 | 6 | 1×10^{10} | 0.01 |
| Si: Ga | PC | 18 | 4-17 | 15 | 2×10^{10} | |
| Si: Se | PC | 4.2 | 12-23 | 20 | $(1-2) \times 10^{10}$ | 0.5 |
| Si: B | PC | 4.2 | 15-30 | 25 | 6×10^{10} | 4 |
| Ag + Sn | Bolometer | 2 | 1-1,000 | | 9×10^7 | 0.005 |
| TGS | Pyroelectric | 295 | 1-1,000 | | $(0.2-2) \times 10^9$ | 30 to 1,000 |
| LiNbO ₃ | Pyroelectric | 295 | 1-1,000 | | $(0.05-1) \times 10^8$ | 1,000 |
| BaSr(NbO ₃) | Pyroelectric | 295 | 1-1,000 | | $(0.1-2) \times 10^8$ | 30 |
| LiTaO ₃ | Pyroelectric | 295 | 1-1,000 | | 6×10^7 | 50 |
| BaTiO ₃ | Pyroelectric | 295 | 1-1,000 | | $(2-5) \times 10^7$ | 50,000 |

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Table B-5
Materials Suitable for
Electro-Optic Devices (U)

| Crystal Structure | Crystal Name | Spectral Transmission, Interval (μm) |
|-------------------|---|---|
| Tetragonal | Potassium dihydrogen phosphate KH_2PO_4 (KDP) | 0.2 to 1.5 |
| | Deuterated potassium dihydrogen phosphate KD_2PO_4 (DKDP) | 0.2 to 1.5 |
| Trigonal | Lithium niobate ($LiNbO_3$) | 0.35 to 5 |
| | Lithium tantalate ($LiTaO_3$) | 0.35 to 5 |
| Cubic | Zinc selenide (ZnSe) | 0.5 to 20 |
| | Zinc sulfide (ZnS) | 0.35 to 20 |
| | Lead magnesium niobate $Pb_{0.5}Mg_{0.5}Nb_2O_7$ (PMN) | 0.35 to 5 |
| | Gallium arsenide (GaAs) | 1.0 to 20 |
| | Cadmium telluride (CdTe) | 0.8 to 20 |
| | Bismuth silicon oxide $Bi_{12}SiO_{20}$ (BSO) | 0.3 to 5.0 |



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Table B-6
Soviet Laser Communication Systems

| Date | Laser | Capacity | Range (km) | Location | Remarks |
|-------------------------|-----------------|--|-------------------|----------------------------|--|
| a. Gas | | | | | |
| 1965 | He-Ne | Single-channel TV | Lab demonstration | Unknown | Kerr cell modulator, 5.5-MHz bandwidth |
| 1965 | He-Ne | Single-channel voice | 5 | Moscow University | |
| 1968 | He-Ne | 24-channel voice | 25 | Yerevan | PPM ^a photomultiplier detector |
| 1968 | He-Ne | 12-channel voice | Approx. 18 | Moscow Krasnogorsk | |
| 1969 | Unknown | 24-channel voice | Unknown | Kuybyshev | |
| 1969 | He-Ne | 1 MHz | 3 | Klaypeda | |
| 1969 | He-Ne | 1 MHz | 5 | Gorkiy | |
| 1970 | He-Ne | Single-channel voice | Several | Kirgiz | High-altitude mountainous experiment |
| 1971 | He-Ne | Single-channel TV | 2 | Tbilisi | |
| 1971 | Unknown | Unknown | 5.2 | Estonia (Tallin) | Test link for evaluation of various types of lasers |
| 1971-1972 | CO ₂ | Unknown | 41 | Yerevan | 200-W CO ₂ lasers |
| 1971 | | | | Moscow Tula | |
| 1972 | Unknown | Voice and TV | 83 | Kirgiz | Standard gas lasers used over an 83-km straight path at an altitude of 2,000 m above sea level |
| 1972 | Unknown | Unknown | 6 | Tallin | Two links |
| 1974 | Unknown | 40-channel TV | Unknown | Kiev University | |
| 1975 | CO ₂ | Voice? | Unknown | Field tests by army units | 8 W out, LG-59 laser |
| 1975 | He-Ne | PCM ^b and/or computer-to-computer | 1.2 | Tallin | LG-36 and LG-56 lasers; photomultiplier detector |
| 1980 | | | | L'vov | Polarization modulation |
| b. Semiconductor | | | | | |
| 1968 | GaAs | Unknown | Lab experiment | Moscow | Repeater amplifier (pulsed) experiments at 77K |
| 1969 | GaAs, GaPAs | 96-channel voice | Less than 1 | FIAN, Moscow | PCM at 77K |
| 1970 | GaAs | Single-channel voice | 5 | Commercial item | Hand-held transceiver (TO-2) PCM at room temperature |
| 1970 | GaAs | Single-channel voice | 6 | Commercial item | Tripod-mounted transceiver (MOLS-1) PCM at room temperature |
| 1971 | GaAs | Single-channel voice (?) | 5 | Voyeykova (near Leningrad) | PCM |
| 1974 | | | 1.5 | Moscow | PPU-1 |
| 1981 | | 6.5 MHz | | Moscow | LKS-2, PCM |

^a Pulse-position modulation.^b Pulse-code modulation.

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Table B-7
Thermal Imaging Systems (TIS)

| Names of System | Min. Resolvable Temp. Difference (thresh sens) (°C) | Field of View (angular degrees) | Spatial Resolution (angular min) | Frame Period(s) | Lines Per Frame | Radiation Detector | Cooling Method | Display | Continuous Operations (h) | Spectral band (μm) |
|------------------|---|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Rubin-1 | 0.05 (at 25) | 20x10 | 7 | 60 | | InSb | Liq.N ₂ | ECP ^a | | 3 to 5 |
| Rubin-2 | 0.1 | 20x15 | 8 | 60 | 150 (170 pxls/line) | InSb (FS-36LA) | Liq.N ₂ | ECP ^a | 1.5 | 3 to 5 |
| Rubin-3 | 0.1 | 20x20 | 6 + 1 | 40 | 240 | InSb | Liq.N ₂ | ECP ^a and CRT | | 3 to 5 |
| ATP-12M | 0.1-0.3 | 11x15 | | 5 | 250 | InSb | Liq.N ₂ | CRT and photo | 6 | 2.0 to 5.6 |
| Yantar | 0.2 (at 25) | 5x4 | 5 | 0.04 | | InSb | Liq.N ₂ | CRT | | 3.5 |
| Raduga | 0.2 | 7.5x5 | 4x6 | 0.04 | 150 (50 pxls/line) | InSb (50-element) | Liq.N ₂ | CRT | 2.5 | 2.0 to 6.0 |
| Almaz | 0.2 (at 30) | 20x17.5 | 8 | 0.04 | 132 (140 pxls/line) | InSb (11-element) | Liq.N ₂ | CRT | 3 to 5 | |
| IK-10P | 0.3 | 5x3.5 | 5 | 0.056 | 100 | InSb | Liq.N ₂ | CRT | | |
| IK-10T | <0.5 | 80 | 10 | 0.05 | | | | | | 1.0 to 5.6 |
| Stator | 1.0 | 360 | 20 | | Variable | PbSe (SF4-1) | Uncooled | ECP ^a | NA ^b | 1.8 to 4.8 |
| Stator-1 | 1.0 | 360 | 23 | (0.5 s/line) | Variable | | Uncooled | ECP ^a and CRT | NA ^b | |
| Taiga | 2.5 (at 20) | 120 | 20 | NA ^b | NA ^b | PbSe | Thermo-electric | ECP ^a | NA ^b | 3.2 to 4.7 |
| Airborne on LI-2 | | | | | | | | | | 1.8 to 5.3 |
| First channel | 0.5 | 54 | 5 | NA ^b | NA ^b | PbSe (10-element) | Compressed N ₂ | Photo | | Subranges |
| Second channel | 0.3 | | 70 | | | PbSe (1-element) | | | | 3.2 to 5.3 3.6 to 5.3 4.2 to 5.3 |

Table B-7 (Continued)

| Names of System | Min. Resolvable Temp. Difference (thresh sens) (°C) | Field of View (angular degrees) | Spatial Resolution (angular min) | Frame Period(s) | Lines Per Frame | Radiation Detector | Cooling Method | Display | Continuous Operations (h) | Spectral band (μm) |
|--------------------------|---|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|---------------------|---|----------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| Vulkan | | | | | | | | | | |
| First channel | 0.5 (at 20) | 80 | 7 | NA | NA | InSb | Liq.N ₂ (closed loop) | Photo and CRT | | 3 to 5 |
| Second channel | 0.25 (at 20) | | | | | Ge: Au (HgCdTe) | | | | 8 to 13 |
| TV-03 | 0.2 | 4.5x4.5 | 4 | 0.0625 | 100 | | | CRT | | |
| Filin | 0.2 | 20x10 | 3.4 | 60-840 | 122 (244 pxls/line) | Bolometer | Uncooled | Photo | NA | 0.7 to 40 |
| TP-02 (Polish) | 0.5 | 8.5x8.5 | 8.6 | 0.0625 | 100 | InSb HgCdTe? | | CRT | | 3.0 to 5.6 |
| 15-71-03 (Polish) | 0.1 | 10x10 | 4.1 | 60 | 125 (150 pxls/line) | PbTe | Liq.N ₂ | CRT | | 1.1 to 5.7 |
| HS-3B (Chinese) | 10.2 | | 9 | NA | NA | Ge: Hg | Ne and Nz | Photo | 8 | 8 to 14 |
| Satellite systems | | | | | | | | | | |
| Last-ochka-65 | 0.6 | 70 | 80 | NA | NA | Bolometer | | | | 8 to 12 |
| MSU-E | | 2.6 | 0.156 | NA | NA | Si (CCD) (3-1024 element linear arrays) | Uncooled | | NA | 0.5 to 1.0 ^c |
| VS-1 and VS-2 | | 7.5 | 0.4 | NA | NA | Si (CCD) (matrix array) | Uncooled | Compute processing | NA | 0.4 to 1.1 |
| First channel | | | | | | InSb (matrix array) | Uncooled? | | | 1.2 to 2.4 |
| Second channel | | | | | | InSb (matrix array) | | | and display | 3.2 to 4.2 |
| Third channel | | | | | | InSb (linear array) | | | | 8 to 14 |
| Fourth channel | | | | | | HgCdTe (matrix array) | | | | |

^a Electrochemical paper.^b Not applicable.^c Not TIS but included here to indicate level of fielded capability.

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Annex C**Glossary of Terms**

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| Acousto-optics | Technology that utilizes the effects of an acoustic wave in a material to affect light propagating in the material; also see Bragg cell. |
| Adaptive-optics | Technique of changing in real-time, optic parameters of a system so as to compensate for certain undesirable effects (for example, atmospheric turbulence). |
| Aperture | Size of the "opening" of a receiving element seen by the impinging electromagnetic wave. |
| Bragg cell | Device based on the Bragg effect, in which an acoustic wave in a suitable crystalline material produces local refractive index changes, producing diffraction of a light beam traveling in the same medium and thereby causing an interaction between the signals represented by the light and acoustic waves. |
| Bulk acoustic wave | Acoustic wave propagating in the volume of a medium (device) as opposed to surface wave propagation. |
| Coherent light | Light of a single frequency (color) and constant phase, needed for most classes of signal processing, available from a laser. |
| Conjugator | Device or system providing phase conjugation. |
| Convolver | Device or system performing the mathematical equivalent of convolution or correlation; this entails the processes of multiplication of all points of a function with each and every other one (in one or more dimensions) and the summation of products. |
| Detectivity | A figure of merit parameter of an optical detector; the reciprocal of noise equivalent power that related to the minimum detectable signal; denoted by D it is expressed in reciprocal watts; in addition, the specific detectivity D^* is normalized to size and bandwidth (to the half power) and reciprocal power. |
| Diffraction efficiency | The ratio of diffracted light to incident light in certain electro-optic devices. |
| Doppler frequency | A frequency shift or signal superimposed upon a coherent wave by a moving object that emits or reflects the wave. |

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| Electronic digital | A term used in this report to denote conventional, nonoptical data or signal processing. |
| Electro-optic deflector | One of a class of devices that employs the electro-optic effect to deflect (that is, modulate) an incident light beam. |
| Fiber optics | A technology based on the use of optical fibers that are glass (or plastic) waveguides of light; distinguishes itself from conventional communication techniques through large bandwidth and resistance to interference. |
| Focal plane array | An array of detectors operating in the focal plane (rather than image plane) of an optical system. |
| Four wave mixing or degenerate four wave mixing | A phenomenon taking place in a nonlinear medium, in which two waves (pump beams) interfere to produce a periodic charge pattern that acts as a diffraction grating in such a way that a third, incident probe beam produces a fourth signal beam directly reflected upon the probe beam; the latter two beams have the desired characteristics for a phase conjugator. |
| Fringe pattern | The spatial pattern formed by the interference of two waves (of light); for simple shapes (for example, pin holes or slits) of the contributing beams, regular patterns of light and dark "fringes" are observed. |
| Gain medium | Laser medium, that is, the material which, when pumped in the laser sense, will amplify a light beam propagating through it by the mechanism of stimulated emission (laser action). |
| Geodesic lens | A hemispherical dome-shaped device that refracts light to generate two nodes at opposing surfaces; see also Luneburg lens. |
| Glint | Strong specular reflection from an object. |
| Grating | A periodic optical structure that wavelength selectively diffracts an impinging plane wave. |
| Harmonic generation | A nonlinear effect that produces from a signal another one of double or integer multiples of the original frequency; optically this occurs in certain crystals (for example, KDP) with the resultant light of shorter wavelength; since the original light beam is usually also present in the resultant as well as other undesired products, the conversion efficiency is always less than one. |

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| Holographic memory | A medium in which input information is stored holographically, that is, in the form of a local refractive perturbation that produces a corresponding phase perturbation in a read-out beam; the memory can be of a permanent or volatile type, the latter usually being necessary for signal processing in real time. |
| Hybrid computer | In the context of this report a mixed system of both optical computing or signal processing elements and conventional digital electronics. |
| Image converter | A class of electron tubes or similar devices that convert an optical image into a stream of electrical signals for the purpose of transmission or processing. |
| Image enhancement | One of various techniques used to process an optical image so as to improve the ability of the human observer to extract information; examples are contrast enhancement, dynamic range compression, edge enhancement, deblurring. |
| Index of refraction | Characteristic of an optical material; the ratio of the speed of light in space to the speed of light in the material. |
| Infrared | See spectrum. |
| Ion implantation | A process of bombarding the surface of a material with ions that modifies the recipient material electrically (as used in semiconductor manufacture) or mechanically (as used in surface hardening). |
| Isotope separation | See laser photochemistry. |
| Laser | Originally the acronym for Light Amplification through Stimulated Emission of Radiation, now a class of devices producing highly coherent, collimated, monochromatic light. |
| Laser photochemistry | Technology of producing selectively desired chemical reactions based on the interaction of matter and light (photochemistry); with laser light as the activating energy, high selectivities are achievable; isotope separation is a prime application of these techniques. |
| LIDAR | From light radar; radar-like instrumentation using light (to include infrared) and some of the characteristics specific to light (for example, differential absorption). |
| Line scan imaging | A historical term applied to imaging (primarily in the infrared), produced by scanning the image with a small number of detectors in consecutive lines. |

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| Multiplexing, spectral multiplexing | Techniques of superimposing multiple channels of information upon one transmission channel by the assignment of different spectral regions to each information stream; optical multiplexing, for example, could employ many signals each of a different carrier wavelength to simultaneously and without interference propagate over one optical fiber channel. |
| Multiples per second | Measure of throughput rate of digital system; elementary operations per second. |
| Nonlinear optics | Generally large area of optics and related technologies dealing with nonlinear effects, that is, those regimes where output signals cannot simply be described by a linear combination of inputs, that is, classical transmission, absorption, reflection, refraction; includes many important effects such as bistability, mixing, harmonic generation. |
| Optical bistability | Phenomenon of two distinct and stable optical states in one medium or device (for example, transmission/capacity or two states of polarization); examples are optical switches, liquid crystals, or optical digital memories. |
| Optically induced diffraction grating | An effect in certain materials (that is, photorefractive materials, liquid crystals, long chain polymers) where the interaction of two light waves produces electrically periodic structures that act as diffraction gratings; see also four wave mixing. |
| Opto-electronics | Device or technology that interfaces between optical and electrical signals (input usually optical). |
| Parametric mixing | Signal mixing process (mathematically multiplication in which new frequencies are produced) in which one of the two or more interacting signals affects the parameters of the energy storing medium; a process inherent in four wave mixing. |
| Phase conjugation | A process that produces the mathematical conjugate of a given signal (same amplitude and opposite phase); a major approach to propagating optical signals through distorting media. |
| Photoconductivity | Light-induced change in conductivity of a material. |
| Photodetector | Device that detects optical signals using one of numerous principles of operation, for example, photoconduction photovoltaics, pyroelectrics, photoemission. |
| Photodiode | A common photodetector. |
| Photovoltaics | Light-induced redistribution of charges in a material producing a voltage. |

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| Photolithography | Technique of printing, for example, integrated circuit manufacture, using light and light-sensitive resists. |
| Polysilicon | Silicon material with multiple crystalline boundaries (as opposed to amorphous or monocrystalline material). |
| Pyroelectric | An effect in which infrared light (heat) causes an electric signal. |
| Q-switching | Refers to rapidly changing the Q-factor, that is, the resonance of an optical cavity; used to produce large pulsed outputs from solid-state lasers by permitting pump energy to build up followed by rapid and intense lasing action when the cavity becomes resonant. |
| Real time; near-real-time processing | Performance of a process that uses a stream of input data as it is produced, at the rate at which it is produced or faster; near-real-time processing is on balance at the rate of data generation but may include short-term storage and slower processing if input data are supplied in the form of discontinuous bursts. |
| Soliton | Stable, propagating, nondissipative wave structure observed in nonlinear systems. |
| Spatial frequency | Analogous to frequency defined for periodic time varying signals, spatial frequency is the rate of reoccurrence, in space, of a feature of a periodic intensity distribution in space; for example, sharp edges in an image have many high spatial frequency components. |
| Spectrum | The optical spectrum, as used in this report, comprises several (not rigorously defined) bands that include the ultraviolet, visible, and infrared, covering the wavelength regions from 10 nm to 1 mm. |
| Streak camera | A diagnostic, recording device for ultrafast processes; the high-speed event is "stopped" by the action for a flying spot scanning process in a suitable image converter tube. |
| Synthetic aperture radar | A type of radar that achieves angular resolution far better than given by the physical size (aperture) of its antenna, simulating a far larger antenna by sequentially moving its real antenna along a long baseline in space and coherently processing the returns as if they had arrived at one large (synthetic) antenna; a noteworthy advantage of this radar is its crossrange resolution being independent of range. |
| Terminal guidance | That final phase in the control of the flight of a missile nearest the target. |

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Thermoelectric effect A phenomenon found in some materials by which a temperature difference produces a voltage that can be sensed.

Term Within this report near-term is considered to span the next five years, mid-term about 15 years, and far-term the future beyond 15 years.

Waveguide A tubular medium within which an (electromagnetic) wave will propagate with little loss; at radio frequencies it usually takes the form of a metallic circular or rectangular cross section cylinder; at optical wavelengths specially designed glass fibers permit low loss propagation.



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